### Lecture outline

- Dimensionality reduction
  - SVD/PCA
  - CUR decompositions
- Nearest-neighbor search in low dimensions
   kd-trees

### Datasets in the form of matrices

We are given **n** objects and **d** features describing the objects. (Each object has **d** numeric values describing it.)

#### <u>Dataset</u>

An **n-by-d** matrix **A**, **A**<sub>ij</sub> shows the "*importance*" of feature **j** for object **i**.

Every row of **A** represents an object.

#### <u>Goal</u>

- **1. Understand** the structure of the data, e.g., the underlying process generating the data.
- 2. Reduce the number of features representing the data

### Market basket matrices



Find a subset of the products that characterize customer behavior

### Social-network matrices



Find a subset of the groups that accurately clusters social-network users

### **Document** matrices d terms (e.g., theorem, proof, etc.) n documents A<sub>ij</sub> = frequency of the j-th term in the i-th document

Find a subset of the terms that accurately clusters the documents

### **Recommendation systems**



Find a subset of the products that accurately describe the behavior or the customers

### The Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Data matrices have **n** rows (one for each object) and **d** columns (one for each feature).

Rows: vectors in a Euclidean space,

Two objects are "*close*" if the angle between their corresponding vectors is small.



### SVD: Example



Input: 2-d dimensional points

**Output:** 

**1st (right) singular vector:** direction of maximal variance,

2nd (right) singular vector:

direction of maximal variance, after removing the projection of the data along the first singular vector.

### Singular values



 $\sigma_1$ : measures how much of the data variance is explained by the first singular vector.

σ<sub>2</sub>: measures how much of the data variance is explained by the second singular vector.

### SVD decomposition

$$\begin{pmatrix} A \\ n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} U \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} V \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} V \end{pmatrix}^T$$

$$n \times d \qquad n \times \ell \qquad \ell \times \ell \qquad \ell \times \ell \qquad \ell \times d$$

**U**(**V**): orthogonal matrix containing the left (right) singular vectors of **A**.

 $\Sigma$ : diagonal matrix containing the **singular values** of A:  $(\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge ... \ge \sigma_e)$ 

Exact computation of the SVD takes **O(min{mn<sup>2</sup>, m<sup>2</sup>n})** time. The top *k* left/right singular vectors/values can be *computed faster* using Lanczos/Arnoldi methods.

### SVD and Rank-k approximations





### **SVD** as an optimization problem

Find **C** to minimize:

$$\min_{C} \left\| A - C_{n \times k} X_{k \times d} \right\|_{F}^{2}$$

$$\left\|A\right\|_{F}^{2} = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij}^{2}$$

Given **C** it is easy to find **X** from standard least squares. However, the fact that we can find the optimal **C** is fascinating!

### PCA and SVD

- PCA is SVD done on **centered** data
- PCA looks for such a direction that the data projected to it has the maximal variance
- PCA/SVD continues by seeking the next direction that is orthogonal to all previously found directions
- All directions are orthogonal

### How to compute the PCA

- Data matrix A, rows = data points, columns = variables (attributes, features, parameters)
- 1. Center the data by subtracting the mean of each column
- Compute the SVD of the centered matrix A' (i.e., find the first k singular values/vectors)
   A' = UΣV<sup>T</sup>
- 3. The principal components are the columns of V, the coordinates of the data in the basis defined by the principal components are  $U\Sigma$

# Singular values tell us something about the variance

- The variance in the direction of the k-th principal component is given by the corresponding singular value σ<sub>k</sub><sup>2</sup>
- Singular values can be used to estimate how many components to keep
- *Rule of thumb:* keep enough to explain *85%* of the variation:

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \sigma_{j}^{2}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j}^{2}} \approx 0.85$$

#### SVD is the Rolls-Royce and the Swiss Army Knife of Numerical Linear Algebra."\* \*Dianne O'Leary, MMDS '06

### **SVD** as an optimization problem

Find **C** to minimize:

$$\min_{C} \left\| A - C_{n \times k} X_{k \times d} \right\|_{F}^{2}$$

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Given **C** it is easy to find **X** from standard least squares. However, the fact that we can find the optimal **C** is fascinating!

### The CX-decomposition

### Find **C** that contains subset of the columns of **A** to minimize: $\min_{C} \left\| A - C X_{n \times k} X \right\|_{E}^{2}$

$$\left\|A\right\|_{F}^{2} = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij}^{2}$$

Given Cit is easy to find X from standard least squares. However, finding C is now hard!!!

### Why CX-decomposition

 If A is an object-feature matrix, then selecting "representative" columns is equivalent to selecting "representative" features

 This leads to easier *interpretability*; compare to eigenfeatures, which are linear combinations of all features.

# Algorithms for the **CX** decomposition

• The SVD-based algorithm

• The greedy algorithm

• The k-means-based algorithm

# Algorithms for the **CX** decomposition

- The SVD-based algorithm
  - Do SVD first
  - Map k columns of A to the left singular vectors
- The greedy algorithm
  - Greedily pick k columns of A that minimize the error
- The **k-means-based** algorithm
  - Find k centers (by clustering the columns)
  - Map the k centers to columns of A

# Discussion on the CX decomposition

 The vectors in C are not orthogonal – they do not define a space

• It maintains the sparcity of the data

### Nearest Neighbour in low dimensions

### Definition

- Given: a set X of n points in R<sup>d</sup>
- Nearest neighbor: for any query point qeR<sup>d</sup> return the point xeX minimizing L<sub>p</sub>(x,q)

### Motivation

• Learning: Nearest neighbor rule

• Databases: Retrieval

 Donald Knuth in vol.3 of *The Art of Computer Programming* called it the post-office problem, referring to the application of assigning a resident to the *nearest-post office*

### Nearest neighbor rule





#### MNIST dataset "2"





### Methods for computing NN

• Linear scan: O(nd) time

• This is pretty much all what is known for exact algorithms with theoretical guarantees

• In practice:

- kd-trees work "well" in "low-medium" dimensions

### 2-dimensional kd-trees

- A data structure to support range queries in R<sup>2</sup>
  - Not the most efficient solution in theory
  - Everyone uses it in practice

- Preprocessing time: O(nlogn)
- Space complexity: O(n)
- Query time: O(n<sup>1/2</sup>+k)

### 2-dimensional kd-trees

- Algorithm:
  - Choose x or y coordinate (alternate)
  - Choose the median of the coordinate; this defines a horizontal or vertical line
  - Recurse on both sides
- We get a binary tree:
  - Size O(n)
  - Depth O(logn)
  - Construction time O(nlogn)











### The complete kd-tree





### Region of node v



**Region(v)** : the subtree rooted at v stores the points in black dots

### Searching in kd-trees

• Range-searching in 2-d

 Given a set of n points, build a data structure that for any query rectangle R reports all point in R

### kd-tree: range queries

- Recursive procedure starting from v = root
- Search (v,R)
  - If v is a leaf, then report the point stored in v if it lies in R
  - Otherwise, if Reg(v) is contained in R, report all points in the subtree(v)
  - Otherwise:
    - If Reg(left(v)) intersects R, then Search(left(v),R)
    - If Reg(right(v)) intersects R, then Search(right(v),R)

### Query time analysis

- We will show that Search takes at most O(n<sup>1/2</sup>+P) time, where P is the number of reported points
  - The total time needed to report all points in all sub-trees is O(P)
  - We just need to bound the number of nodes v such that region(v) intersects R but is not contained in R (i.e., boundary of R intersects the boundary of region(v))
  - gross overestimation: bound the number of region(v) which are crossed by any of the 4 horizontal/vertical lines



### Query time (Cont'd)

Q(n): max number of regions in an n-point kd-tree intersecting a (say, vertical) line?



- If *c* intersects region(v) (due to vertical line splitting), then after two levels it intersects 2 regions (due to 2 vertical splitting lines)
- The number of regions intersecting ℓ is Q(n)=2+2Q(n/4) → Q(n)=(n<sup>1/2</sup>)

### d-dimensional kd-trees

- A data structure to support range queries in R<sup>d</sup>
- Preprocessing time: O(nlogn)
- Space complexity: O(n)
- Query time: O(n<sup>1-1/d</sup>+k)

### Construction of the d-dimensional kd-trees

- The construction algorithm is similar as in 2-d
- At the root we split the set of points into two subsets of same size by a hyperplane vertical to x<sub>1</sub>-axis
- At the children of the root, the partition is based on the second coordinate: x<sub>2</sub>-coordinate
- At depth d, we start all over again by partitioning on the first coordinate
- The recursion stops until there is only one point left, which is stored as a leaf